

THE NATURE AND KINDS OF
QUESTIONS TEACHERS AND STUDENTS ASK
IN THE ENGLISH CLASSROOMS OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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ABSTRACT

The main purpose of the study is to identify the kind of questions asked by teachers and students in the English language classrooms.

The selected schools for this study are Yekatit 12 Senior Secondary School, Entoto Technical, Vocational and Academic School, Ethiopia Tikedom Number One Secondary School, Tikur Anbesa Senior Secondary School and Misrak Comprehensive Senior Secondary School.

The results of the study show that teachers use knowledge and comprehension level questions in the recorded lessons. Table 4 shows that 121 questions or 78.43 per cent of the total questions are classified under knowledge level. Twenty-nine questions or 18.95 per cent of the total questions are comprehension questions.

The distribution of questions in the classroom is shown on table five. The result shows that 76 questions or 49.67 per cent of the total questions are answered by volunteers and 38 questions or 24.84 per cent of the total questions are answered by the whole class. Nineteen questions or 12.42 per cent of the questions are also answered by randomly asked students.

Lastly, table six shows that 57 questions are good questions. On the other hand, loosely-worded, repeated, multiple, rhetorical, ambiguous, elliptical and limited questions share the remaining 96 questions.

The teachers ask 30.6 questions on an average per class

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colleges confirm that students have difficulties using the language and in interacting in the classroom. Based on these studies, this study also tries to show the purposes questions have on the classroom interaction.

In particular, the following questions are taken into consideration in this study. Do the teachers under study ask questions in the classroom? If so do they use questions to:- help learners use the language and develop their language skills, practise a new form of language, know the understanding of students, know the effectiveness of their teaching? What strategies do teachers and students use to present questions? These and similar questions will be answered by this study.

The study also attempts to show questioning faults that may occur in the classroom. The common faults are discussed in detail in chapter two. It is also possible to evaluate the presentation of questions and the teachers' reaction to student responses. This is accomplished through the analysis of a recording that is made of the lesson.

In short, the study is designed to identify the kinds of questions commonly used by the teachers and the purposes of these questions in the secondary school classrooms.

1.2 Significance of the Study

This study is significant because the results can be used as a basis for making decisions on the sort of questions that should be used when teaching English in the classroom.

One of the methods that facilitate communication in the classroom is effective questioning. But it is generally believed that teachers and students have a lot of problems in using questions in the classroom.

Many writers believe that to be skilled at preparing questions teachers need to understand the various types of questions which can be created, the effect each type has on thinking and their relationship to lesson objectives. It is also important to know how to phrase and organise questions so they will have the desired impact. Presenting questions effectively requires knowledge of factors involved in interpersonal communication and the ability to make use of these factors in the classroom setting. Reacting to student responses requires sensitivity to individual feelings and the ability to listen and respond in ways that encourage learners to be involved actively in the classroom activities.

Kissock and Iyortsuun (1982: 136) suggest that by asking questions about the presentation of questions in the classroom, and seeking answers to them, it is possible to discover ways to make better use of questions in teaching.

So looking into classroom questioning in particular can provide useful information concerning the problems related to classroom questions and the effectiveness of teachers' questioning strategies. Besides, by studying questions that are planned for a lesson, we can see if they are appropriate for the course objectives and students in the class.

In addition, no research has been done with the intention of investigating the nature, kind and effectiveness of questions teachers and students use in the English classrooms of Ethiopian secondary schools. Therefore, the study is important to serve as a springboard for making further investigation into classroom questioning.

The study may help teachers to show different purposes for and means of creating and presenting questions so that the goals of questioning in particular and learning in general will be successfully achieved.

1.3 Scope of the Study

This study concentrates on identifying basically the kinds of questions most commonly used by teachers of English in the English lessons recorded by the researcher from five secondary schools in Addis Ababa, Namely: Yekatit 12 Senior Secondary School, Ethiopia Tikedom Number 1 Senior Secondary School, Misrak Comprehensive Senior Secondary

School, Entoto Academic, Technical and Vocational School and Tikur Anbesa Senior Secondary School.

1.4 Limitations of the Study

The most challenging constraint faced by the researcher was the size of the samples. The teachers were recorded for forty minutes each while teaching English. The recorded lessons were transcribed and analysed. This was the job which required much time.

Even though the transcription and analysis took much time, the researcher feels that the sampling doesn't warrant generalization. One of the problems is that many teachers are not interested to be recorded. The researcher had to create a good rapport with them. Consequently, it was not possible to use the random sampling technique.

This study is also designed to analyse students' questions. But students didn't ask any questions in four of the sessions. Only very few questions were asked by students in the other recorded lesson. They are inaudible and difficult to identify.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 The Importance of Questions

Questions are helpful to acquire knowledge in different ways. That is why people usually ask each other to know something about unknown things. They are tools to investigate new ideas, facts, information, knowledge and soon. Mostly, scholars start their researches by asking some important questions which show the direction of their works and what is to be done specifically.

Moreover, questions play great roles in communication. People always exchange ideas in the form of questions and responses, i.e., they are essential in all walks of life. Consequently, questions should be given great attention in education.

Kissock and Iyortsuun (1982: 1) state that at every stage in education, questions are the core around which all communication between teacher and pupils takes place. And they are means of developing critical thinking abilities in pupils. Therefore, proper handling and utilization of questions in the classroom is essential. "Questions affect the activities of learners, in classroom tasks and possibly directly, affect learning.: Craig Chaudron (1988: 82). The importance of questions in the language classrooms has also

been emphasized by many other writers. Wringe (1989:83) recommends that if sensitively handled, questions have substantial motivational values." "Of all the techniques available to teachers for moving their students toward real conversation, their own questions are the quickest and easiest." Stevick (1982: 122). "One of the most important skills for teachers to develop is the ability to ask effective questions" Richey (1979: 135). Cooper (1986: 14) confirms that it is extremely important for teachers to avoid ineffective questioning patterns, for the questioning process has always been crucial to classroom instruction.: "The kinds of questions the teacher asks will reveal to the pupil the kind of thinking which is expected of him" Perrott (1982: 41). In general, the ability of teachers in questioning is very important since the effectiveness of many different classroom teaching procedures depends very much upon the ability of the teacher to use questions effectively.

In addition, different types of questions stimulate different kinds of thinking, therefore it is important for the teacher to be conscious of the purposes of asking questions and types of questions.

Even though teachers play a central role in classroom questioning, students also should practise how to form different questions. The students can be motivated to communicate and to express their views, ideas, feelings,

etc. using different questions. According to Kench (1979:4) many foreign students of English, while being able to express themselves quite fluently in the language, find it rather difficult to master the interrogative forms.

Students can do many things in their learning process independently. They can use questions to evaluate their understanding in different ways, Dawson(1984: 14), says that for the purpose of everyday communication, the ability to ask question in English needs careful explanation and regular practice up to intermediate level. "The way a question is presented is often as important as the question itself in determining the effect it will have." (Kissock and Iyortsuun (1982: 18)). All these clearly show that questions should be effectively utilized by teachers and students. But many studies have revealed that very few teachers encourage students to ask questions.

Teachers should not believe that it is only their right to ask question during a lesson. Pupils have a right to ask questions, and sufficient time should be allowed for them to initiate questions in the classroom. By allowing pupils time, and giving them the opportunity to ask questions, teachers are directly developing the skills of inquiry and critical thinking. Kissock and Iyortsuun (1982: 15).

Ronald Sheen (1992: 30) states the same idea in the problem of classroom questioning as follows: "A constant problem for teachers is the task of getting students to ask questions in class. This is caused mainly by lack of confidence in their own ability to form questions correctly and partly by an inability to create questions "out of the

blue." Moreover, John McNair (1974: 43) says it is important for language teachers to acquire questioning techniques which encourage pupils to make replies. Language teachers need more help with these techniques than is usually offered. They should question not to test knowledge but to stimulate pupils to practise a particular language form.

Therefore, questioning is one of the basic skills that both teachers and pupils should use effectively in the classroom.

2.2 Meaning of the Term 'Question'

The term 'question' refers to a problem which is presented to someone to give answers, his opinions, to express his attitudes, to tell his wishes, and so on. According to the definition of Hornby's dictionary (1986), "A question is a sentence which by word order, use of interrogative words (such as who, why etc.) or intonation, requests information, an answer." Brown (1975: 103) defines question as follows. " Any statement which tests or creates knowledge in the learner is a question." Similarly, Kissock and Iyortsuun (1982:2), explain that questions are statements for which a reply is expected. In addition, Hyman (1970:216) states that the word question refers to the eliciting of a verbal response and may take any grammatical form - declarative, interrogative or imperative. In general

the word question refers to any idea which needs a response from the listener or attendant.

2.3 Purposes of Questioning

The knowledge imparted by a teacher can be acquired by students in an effective way if the teacher uses various methods of teaching. From the methods, questioning is one aspect that makes learning and teaching process more effective. There are various purposes served by questioning provided that the technique of questioning follows the right procedure. This has been explained by many writers, for example, Van Lier (1988: 222) mentions that there are different ways of asking questions, and many different purposes for doing so. And Hyman (1970:215) says that the most common, and still the most fruitful, is to describe questions in terms of purpose rather than grammatical form or length. A question can be taken as effective if it fulfills its purpose. Therefore, the purposes of questioning depend on the nature of the subject, circumstances, teaching, testing, etc.

Many writers have different views of purposes of questioning in the classroom. For example, Farrent (1980: 190) says:

Questioning serves two purposes. A. To test what has been learned. For this purpose, the four interrogative, who, what, where and when are generally used. B. To stimulate thought and lead to a deeper understanding. In this case the interrogatives how and why are more often used and

the questions they introduce may be couched in provocative terms instead of straight forward interrogation.

On the other hand, Burton (1962:438), Hyman (1970:217), Kisko and Iyortsuun (1982: 6), Brown, (1982: 112), Kyriacou (1991: 37), have similarities in identifying the purposes of classroom questioning. Some of the purposes which are given by these writers are:

- to find out something one didn't know.
- to develop process of thinking and guide inquiry and decision-making.
- to teach the whole class through pupils' answers.
- to arouse interest or focus attention at the beginning of the lesson.
- to give practice in expression or a new form of language.
- to provide motivation by encouraging active participation in learning.
- to get students to make additional or supplementary contributions to discussion.
- to use information in the classroom etc.

"To fulfill each purpose questions should be constructed with the goal of instruction clearly in mind, and presented in a way that has the greatest effect." Kisko and Iyertsuun (1982: 7). Stevick (1982: 124) says

that teachers' questions can vary as much in their purpose as in their form.

Kyriacou (1991: 37) lists the number of reasons given by Brown and Edmondson (1984) for asking questions in the classroom. They are more or less similar with the above purposes or reasons. In addition, they believe that the purposes of questions can vary depending on why teachers ask question in the class.

Heaton (1990:135) emphasizes that there are several purposes in teaching and testing; but teachers are chiefly concerned with: finding out students' strengths and weaknesses, evaluating students' preparation and checking comprehension. But many scholars advocate that different types of questions stimulate different kinds of thinking; therefore, it is important to use variety of questions in the classroom to make the learning and teaching process effective. It is also important for the teacher to be conscious of the purpose of his questions. Purposeless questions can hinder the lesson in the classroom.

Kissock and Iyertsuun (1982:7) elaborate that questions require different levels of thought process to answer them. For example, some questions ask only that we remember and present information or ideas we have in our minds or have learned before. Other questions require that we think

through a problem or situation and give an answer that we had not known, or used before in a particular situation. Other questions ask what we express that we believe about something or ask that we justify our belief. Knowing all these things helps teachers to achieve the potential value of questions and they can use questions more effectively in the class.

There are many scholars who criticize teachers for excessive use of only recall information students have learned before. This has its own contribution to initiate or warm up classroom activities or discussions. But teachers should limit the frequency of such questions. In order to avoid these problems, teachers should identify the purposes of their questions in the classroom.

2.4 Guides for Effective Questioning

It is obvious that, questioning, in the language classroom plays great roles. Moreover, it serves several purposes. However, for questioning to play its role and to serve its purposes effectively, questions have to be constructed in a way that they can be understood easily. It is worth emphasizing the ways of constructing questions and characteristics of effective questions.

Burton (1962:423) believes that the ability of questioning depends on the ability to think and the teaching experience of the teacher. He stresses that the actual

development of the art of questioning is one of the most difficult and neglected problems in teaching. Good questioning, he continues, requires the ability, native or acquired, to think quickly and easily while facing a class, to shift and change as thought progresses and to phrase in clear and unambiguous terms.

Even though the idea of native ability to think is controversial, from Burton's views we can easily understand that teachers should form the questions clearly and carefully, i.e., the questions shouldn't be ambiguous. They should use specific questions which enable the learners to participate actively.

According to Kissock and Iyortsuun (1982: 15), the way a question is presented is often as important as the question itself in determining the effect it will have. Kyriacou (1991: 39) has noted what the teacher should do while he asks questions in the classroom:

When asking questions there are two extremely important points to bear in mind. First, answering a question, in front of classmates, is an emotionally high-risk activity. As such it is essential that the classroom climate during questioning is one of support and respect for pupils's answers (both by the teacher and by other pupils). Second, don't allow some pupils to opt out of questioning.

Sawyer (1989: 155) and Byrne (1986: 48) note that question and answer practice is one of the commonest - and perhaps most over-worked - ways of giving language practice in the classroom. They agree that it is also one of the

most misused. The following basic points are suggested in relation to questioning in the language classroom:-

- A) It is only one of many ways of giving practice. Here, visual aids enable teachers to elicit responses from the students in whatever form they want.
- B) Questions must be as realistic as possible. This helps learners to identify the context easily and to give precise and clear responses.
- C) Questions based on a text must be reworded in language that is more difficult than the text itself, or call for an answer that are more difficult. This has advantages and disadvantages. If it is meant to avoid recall from the text and develop thinking ability of students, teachers should sometimes use this approach of questioning. On the other hand the teachers shouldn't form difficult questions, as they discourage the students. Consequently, the teacher has the responsibility to be conscious of all these factors and be aware of his students' standard.
- D) Different ways of asking and answering questions must be taken into account. Since a single way of asking questions makes the lesson boring and tiresome, different approaches to questioning should be used. This enables the teacher to hold the attention and interest of his students.

"No matter how good the question is, if it is presented poorly at the wrong time, or when interest is not directed towards the topic, it will not have the desired impact." Kisko and Iyertsuun (1982: 106). There are no fixed rules that can be followed to present questions in the classroom. Therefore, the teacher can use his own techniques and creativity to develop different ways of questioning in his classroom which fit the objectives of the lessons, characters and needs of students. But there are also some important points that should be taken into consideration in questioning.

The first and the most important part of questioning is planning. The teacher should begin with setting objectives that influence the nature of questions. It helps to differentiate aims of the lesson and what is to be done or procedures to be used in presenting questions. Perrott (1982: 90) indicates that one of the common problems in questioning sequences is a lack of emphasis on higher-order questions. This may be due to failure in planning a strategy how to present questions in the classroom.

Moreover, Kisko and Iyortsuun (1982: 106) point out some suggestions to follow when making plans:-

- 1) offer variety in lesson activities. Any activity that is used all or a large portion of time, even questioning, becomes unproductive.

- 2) use significant and worthwhile topics. Even the best questions will have little impact if the topic has no relationship to lesson objectives or needs and interests of pupils.
- 3) when plans are complete compare the focal or key questions with the lesson objectives to determine if:
 - a) the question fit cognitive and affective level of the objectives.
 - b) the questions follow a logical sequence that will lead students to demonstrate the abilities desired in the objectives.

In the classroom, the situation may not be found as the teacher expects. So the teacher has to be knowledgeable about the subject and able to modify plans during classroom interaction as the needs and dynamics of the class dictate. It is worth mentioning some of the suggestions given by Kissonck and Iyortsuun again (1982: 113). These can give insights how to present question in the classroom.

1. Involve all students in the class and be consistent in asking the same number of questions of boys and girls, and students of different abilities. Be tolerant of all responses and allow time for them.

All the responses, correct or wrong, should be treated positively. Then students wouldn't be afraid of making mistakes and it encourages all of them to participate in the classroom. It doesn't mean that errors shouldn't be

corrected. But teachers should treat errors in a way that doesn't affect students' feelings.

In oral questioning, wait-time plays great role to give sufficient time to think over any question. Wait time refers to the amount of time the teacher waits after asking a question before a student responds or the teacher comments or presents another question. Teachers may feel uncomfortable during periods of silence after a question has been asked; but when they allow five or more seconds to pass before making a comment students will begin to give longer and more thoughtful responses. Interaction between students will increase, and teachers will begin to use a greater variety of questions.

Borich (1988:209) suggests that wait time must be longer when the students are expected to think about and to weigh alternative responses. He recommends that teachers should wait at least three seconds before either asking another question, repeating the previous question, or calling on another student. He mentions a research conducted by Rowe (1974) which shows that teachers were observed to have waited an average of only about one second after having posed a question.

Borich confirms that Rowe (1980), Tobin (1980) and Tobin and Capie (1982) suggest that when wait time is increased to three seconds or longer: length of responses

increases; number of voluntary responses increase; level of behavioural complexity of responses increases; students show more confidence in the response; students ask more questions; and students failure to respond decreases.

2. Call on students who do not volunteer answers, but first be certain that all students understand. You will be doing this as a way of having everyone participate in the class. This helps to hold the attention of the whole class and to avoid repeating questions in the classroom. On the other hand, the teacher must know the individual student's ability and the difficulty of his questions. So he can assign his students to answer his questions depending on their abilities. Even though there may be some students who don't like to talk in the classroom, they gradually become familiar with the classroom situation and at last they will be eager to give responses voluntarily.
3. Introduce some questions by saying:- 'Before answering think about the question'. In this case, the teacher encourages students to be alert and understand the context. They can get enough time to modify and make thoughtful responses. In addition, they can identify the kind of question and the nature of the response which should be given.
4. Avoid repeating questions. This will help to keep the attention of all students. If the teacher has the habit of repeating questions, most of the students don't listen at first as they know their teacher's

habit. Repeating questions has many drawbacks, i.e., it wastes time and the teacher may not sometimes exactly repeat the first question. It may be another which causes confusion. But it is sometimes important to rephrase some questions using simple expressions i.e., it is good to give explanations in some situations.

5. Ask questions at the point in the lesson where they can have the best effect, when students are interested, ready and able to answer. During the lesson, the teacher should be aware of the classroom situation. He should have his own techniques to make ready and interested his students to give responses or to ask questions. Firing questions can be started if the teacher realises that students are on the right mood to give responses.
6. Speak clearly in a conversational tone so all students can hear. The tone of our speech has a great impact to form questions. A statement which is not given in a form of a question can sound like a question and need response if the teacher uses the tone of a question. Therefore, conversational tone helps the teacher to make the question easy and clear.
7. State questions clearly so the intent of the question is understood and does not need to be rephrased. Using simple expressions, the teacher can state his questions clearly. Since the teacher knows the students'

standard, he must use familiar words and expressions to form questions.

8. Ask a question then call on a student, in order to keep the attention of the whole class. If the teacher first calls on a student, most of the students wont be attracted by the question. They may be aware of the question when it is only their turn to give answerss whereas questions should be first given to the whole class. This helps every student to think over the question. If the first student fails to give the correct answer, the probability for the second students to give the correct answer is high.
9. Encourage students to comment on other students' responses. The comments should be constructive. They can develop critical thinking abilities in the students. This can give more chance for the students to talk in the classroom and to use different expressions or a new form of language.
10. Present key or local questions at the beginning of a lesson or reading assignment, not at the end. This will direct the pupils' attention to the important issues and ideas being presented. This helps learners to get the main points of the lesson easily and to fulfil the objectives of the lesson.
11. Avoid being unnecessarily critical and making students defend themselves. These actions can lead students to stop responding to questions or participating in discussions unless they are required to.

12. Ask only one question at a time. Avoid trying to elaborate on a question after it is asked. This often results in the teacher asking more questions and making it difficult for students to know what idea they are to present.
13. Don't answer your own questions unless students have been given the opportunity to think about the question and are unable to determine the answer for themselves.

The above techniques of effective questioning are suggested by many authors, such as: Farrent (1980), Burton (1962), Perrott (1982), Sheen (1992), Hicks & Woods (1984), etc. These are some of the possible ways of presenting questions. The teacher may have many other techniques of presenting questions that fit his objectives.

2.5 Faults in Questioning

Some of the faults are indirectly mentioned in the previous discussions. But it is worth mentioning the faults in questioning separately. There are many different reasons for making faults in questioning in the classroom.

One of the weaknesses lies in the teachers' conception of the purposes or aims of questioning. Teachers mostly use questions only to judge the understanding of their students. But questions can serve a lot of other purposes in the teaching and learning process. Therefore, teachers must identify different purposes when they prepare questions.

Purposeless questioning doesn't contribute any thing in teaching. Instead, it is a wastage of time.

The second one is lack of knowledge of the mental process of learning. There are many ways of imparting knowledge from a teacher to students. Hence, teachers can use different methods or approaches of teaching and choose the effective methods that help them to impart knowledge most effectively.

The third reason for making faults in questioning can be lack of training and interest to prepare questions. Teachers should have been trained to use specific skills, like questioning, in the classroom effectively. Interest is the most important thing in teaching. Lack of interest in teaching affects every aspect of classroom activities.

The faults in questioning reflect the knowledge of the teacher. Burton (1962:425) says when we say teachers' questions are poor, we actually mean that their knowledge and thinking are poor.

Farrent (1988: 271) summarizes the most common faults in questioning as follows:-

1. Badly formed questions. He divides these questions into four. A) Vague or very general questions. To these kind of questions, there may be no answer at all or there may be so many possible answers that the

question is not worth asking. Hicks and Woods (1984: 49) say remember that, as a teacher, you spend a lot of your time in the class asking questions. These questions must be grammatically correct, and clear. It is also important not to ask vague questions as they confuse the students. B) Rhetorical questions:- These are statements with interrogative phrases like "isn't it?" or "Don't you think so?" attached to the end. Such questions don't need an answer, they only seek approval. C) Post-script questions:- These occur when a teacher has been happily teaching and suddenly raises some questions, and tags these questions onto the end of his explanations, perhaps like this:- "Addis Ababa is the capital of Ethiopia. What is the capital of Ethiopia?" This resembles a rhetorical question, but it is really used to check whether students are following attentively or not, whereas a rhetorical question seeks approval from students. D) Fill-in the blank questions: In their oral form, they are usually a cover for impatient or lazy teachers who do not take trouble to formulate their questions carefully. These questions are usually fired quickly and suddenly. They can create confusion among students.

2. Repeated questions: Questions repeated in different ways may confuse students, rather than clarify what has been asked before. If students know that the teacher always repeats questions, they will get into the habit of attending only the second time. In addition,

repeating questions wastes the time of the lesson unnecessarily. Instead of repeating questions, it would be better to make students aware of the time of questioning.

3. Multiple-questions: If teachers don't think out their questions before hand, questions tend to grow as they see the problem from different aspects or have to guard against the students getting the wrong ideas. These questions may refer to different ideas at the same time since they don't follow any procedures, i.e., questions are fired consecutively which makes giving responses more complicated. For example, "What is the past tense form of the verb 'write'? Is it a regular or irregular verb? "Why do you call it regular or irregular?" etc. Many questions are given at the same time, but it becomes more and more difficult when we add to the number of questions without accepting responses.
4. Unlinked questions: These are usually the results of in-experience. They form an illogical assortment, consisting of easy and difficult questions which lead no-where in particular. These questions are given only for the sake of asking something in the classroom. Some teachers consider asking questions as something which should be included in every aspect of a lesson. They are the result of lack of planning the questions before hand.
5. Limited questions: According to Farrant some teachers regard questioning as an airman regards his parachute,

for emergency only. They look upon questioning as a help only in times of difficulty, as when they run dry of information; for example, "Has any one any question?" Such kind of questions are presented when the teacher finish the lesson before the right time. This shows again lack of planning the lesson. Even though they is crucial to allow learners to ask questions, it should be asked according to the lesson's objectives. It is also important to show students how to form different questions for various purposes.

Cooper (1986: 140) discusses in full the kinds of mistakes or faults that teachers make in questioning. Most of his points are similar to Farrant's ideas. Cooper quotes a study which indicates that 40% of teachers' questions are ambiguous and poorly phrased. Consequently, he suggests that it is essential to phrase questions carefully.

Specially, language teachers need to be aware of the faults in questioning as long as it is part of the structure of a language. The teacher is after all the model in the classroom. Therefore, students will imitate their teachers in questioning, pronunciation, using different expressions and so on. Teachers must ask questions correctly and appropriately in their classrooms.

2.6 Classifications of questions

There are different ways of classifying questions. Some of the most common classifications are discussed here. Many writers such as: Perrott (1982), Farrant (1986), Kissock and Iyortsuun (1982), Cooper (1986), Burton (1962) etc. have followed Bloom's taxonomy (1956) without or with some modifications in the classifications. Mostly, they try to distinguish higher-order and lower-order questions in relation to the cognitive and affective domain categories. "Cognitive questions are concerned with intellectual understanding. Affective questions are concerned with emotions, attitudes and values" (Kissock & Iyortsuun (1982:9)). The importance of classifying questions is explained by Cooper (1986: 143) as follows:- "The first step in effective questioning is to recognise that questions have distinct characteristics, serve various functions and create different levels of thinking." We can clearly see that classifying questions helps to identify the purposes of questioning in the classrooms. And this can facilitate language learning and teaching process in general. For example, Kissock and Iyertsuun (1982: 11) classify questions as follows.

Table 1

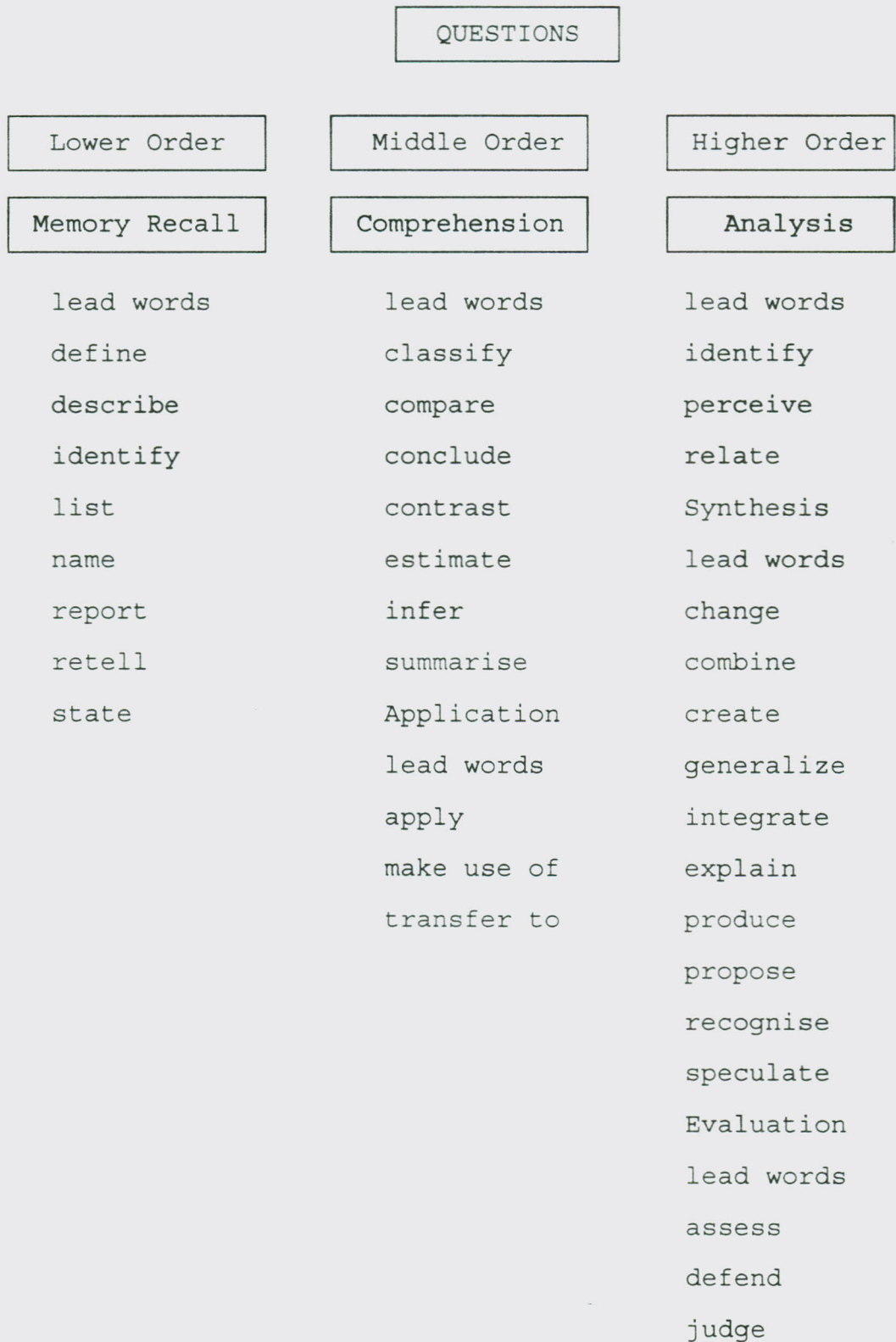
Cognitive Taxonomy

Taxonomy Level	Sample Questions	Key Word	Ability Demonstrated	Type of thinking
Evaluation	Using the criteria that at least half of all questions in a class session should be asked by students, how effective was your lesson?	Judge	Forming judgments	Evaluative judgment
Synthesis	What can we do to encourage pupils to ask more questions in class?	Create	Using information	Divergent
Analysis	Why don't students ask more questions in the classroom?	Why		
Application	In your teaching field what one question could you ask that would be discussed by all students in the class?	How		
Comprehension	Which group of students asks more questions in class?	Compare	Understanding	Convergent
Interpretation Translation	What words can you use to describe your class?	Restate		
Knowledge	How many pupils are in your class?	What	Repeating information	Remembering, recall

Table 2
Affective Taxonomy

Taxonomy Level	Value Process	Sample Questions and Response for Each Level	Action
Characterising by value complex	The value or idea becomes part of the individual's life and is acted on naturally without it being thought.	The school administration decides that lecturing is the only useful teaching strategy and that teachers must lecture to all their classes. What would you do? (you would try to change their mind or even look for a new teaching position.)	As a natural part of all planning and interaction questions are used to challenge students to think at higher levels and consider their values.
Organising a value set	The idea is consciously added to values or beliefs already held and made to fit them.	How does your belief that students should ask questions fit with the belief that only the teacher should lead or direct the class? (It is better to be flexible and adjust the lesson to student needs and interests.)	Lessons are planned that include higher order questions and allow students the chance to ask questions.
Valuing	A commitment is made to the idea. It is seen to have value.	Which teaching strategy should teachers try to improve first; lecturing, questioning or writing examinations? (Questioning)	Other teachers are told that questions are important and they should try to improve their use of questions in class.
Responding	Further information is actively sought.	Are you trying to learn more about question in the classroom? (Yes)	A topic on questioning is read without being assigned because the ideas are of interest and seen as being helpful
Receiving	Become aware of an idea and willing to learn about it.	What is the topic presented in this text? (using questions in teaching.)	This text is read and an awareness of the role and effect of questioning in teaching is developed.

Similarly, Farrant puts the kinds of questions in the form of the following diagram.



(Farrant 1982: 192)

In relation to second language teaching, many writers have different ways of classifying questions. For example, Don Byrne (1986: 48) classifies questions as follow:- i) Wh-questions; ii) questions formed with an auxiliary verb; iii) tag questions and iv) alternative type questions. According to Byrne Type(i) requires the students to provide some information from the text which is not in the question (in other words, they cannot simply guess the answer). Question types (ii) and (iii) can be answered in a variety of ways. In the early stages we will probably want to give students plenty of practice in answering with short form answers (yes, it is/No, she can't etc.). But it would be wrong to insist on questions always being answered in one way.

Heaton (1990:121) suggests that the following types of questions are important. It is important to be aware of them as different kinds of questions and to try to vary them from time to time in teaching English.

1. Recognition questions: eg. Did the girl in the story you have just read go on a picnic or stay at home?
2. Recall questions: eg. What did the girl do in the story you've just read?
3. Comprehension questions: eg. Can you tell me what the author's reasons for his view were?
4. Evaluation questions: eg. What's your opinion about the way Tina acted when she heard the news?

3. Pseudo-questions (questions which appear to be open but for which the teacher's reception of answers shows that he or she will accept only one answer.

In order to categorize teacher's questions, Perrott (1982: 51) states that one must determine the kind of thinking required on the part of the pupils in order to answer the questions. Lower-order questions, for example, require the pupils to recall information, whereas, higher-order questions require the pupils to manipulate information for some purposes. Research studies carried out in parts of the world according to Perrott (1982:55) have shown that the majority of teachers questions call for specific fact answers, or lower cognitive thought. But higher cognitive questions, which cause pupils to go beyond memory and use other thought processes informing an answer have an important role. Therefore, teachers should use different questions which help them to fulfill their objectives.

2.7 Dealing with Answers to Questions

When a teacher asks questions, he may get correct, partly correct or wrong responses. These responses should be treated in such away that helps the teacher to achieve his purposes of questioning. In addition, the effectiveness of the questions asked by the teacher can be inferred from the given responses in the classroom. The teacher can summarise, elaborate, shape, focus, rephrase, highlight

important points, encourage, probe, or reward students' responses.

There are many suggestions which direct teachers in reacting to students' responses. For example, Farrent (1986:195) gives the following suggestions.

- a) When an answer is given by a student, indicate whether it is right or wrong, comment on the wrong answers and show appreciation for those that are partly right.
- b) Don't answer your own questions, i.e., wait for the pupils' answers and let them speak for themselves and don't amplify the answer given by the pupils. The only comment you need to make apart from appreciation and acknowledgement is to correct a point that is wrong.
- c) Make sure that the answers are heard by the whole class. According to Kissock and Iyortsuun (1982: 114) the primary skill used in reacting to student responses is listening. There are two parts of effective listening. Does the teacher, and do the other students in the class, understand what is being said? Do they know the feelings of the person who is responding? Understanding the ideas that are being presented and whether agreeing with them or not, accepting the person's feelings, are both important if the individual is to be encouraged to continue sharing his/her ideas.

9. Make use of student answers even if they are not exactly what was expected. Consider letting the discussion go away from the subject for a few minutes, then decide whether to continue in the new line of thinking or to return to the original topic.
10. Compliment and reward pupils for good answers, and develop in pupils a feeling of accomplishment and pleasure from participating in a discussion with the teacher and other students.
11. Use the response of one pupil as the basis for further questions.
12. Summarise and assess student progress in achieving lesson objectives and describe how his/her ideas can be used to solve the problem being studied.
13. Give pupils time to think through the question and their answer before sharing it with the class. Students are asked to formulate and present their ideas to a group of students in a few minutes. As teachers we are not always willing to do this and should not always expect our students to do it.

These can be taken as examples of the techniques of responding to the students' answers. But the teacher can vary or use his own ways of reacting to responses of students. The purposes of questioning also determine the nature of reaction to the responses. For example, the purpose of questioning may be to intensify the participation of every student in the class, to practise a new form of

language in the classroom, to evaluate the students' understanding, etc. Therefore, the teacher shouldn't use the same procedure to treat all of the responses.

Another important point to be taken into consideration is that the teacher shouldn't react to students' responses in a way that affects students' feelings. Consequently, he must carefully investigate the behaviour of his students. But some of the problems can be gradually avoided through repeated practice. Thus, the teacher shouldn't neglect some of the methods since they fail to fulfill his objectives for the first time. This can be due to the lack of students' experience in the previous lessons.

The most important factor is the culture of the students. In some societies, failing to give appropriate response can be taken as something shameful. In other words, the teacher should be conscious about the cultural impacts of the society as a whole which impede the students to give responses in the classroom.

CHAPTER III
PLAN OF THE STUDY

3.1 Selection of Schools

There are many government secondary schools in Addis Ababa. Of these secondary schools five were selected by purposive sampling rather than random sampling. This is because many teachers are not interested to be recorded while teaching in the classroom. The researcher had to ask for volunteer teachers and visit schools repeatedly in order to establish a good rapport with them as well as the administrators. It would have been very difficult to do so if the schools had been far away from the university or in the remote parts of the city.

The selected schools are Yekatit Twelve Senior Secondary school, Entoto Vocational, Technical and Academic School, Ethiopia Tikedem Number One Senior Secondary School, Misrak Comprehensive Senior Secondary School and Tikur Anbesa Senior Secondary School.

First it was essential to get permission from the school administrators to conduct the classroom research. And then the researcher had to contact the unit leaders and department heads to ask for volunteer teachers to be recorded in the classroom.

3.2 Selection of Teachers

In the selected five schools, there are many teachers assigned to teach English. Only five teachers are recorded for this study while teaching English in the classroom. They are graduates from different universities and colleges. They have more than ten years of teaching experience at different secondary schools in various parts of the country. The recording was only for forty minutes for each teacher with his students in the classroom.

Table 3

Selected Teachers and Schools

No.	Name of the School	Grade	No. of Students
1	Yekatit 12 Senior Secondary School	11	78
2	Entoto Vocational, Technical and Academic School	11	67
3	Ethiopia Tikdem Number One Senior Secondary School	10	89
4	Misrak Comprehensive Secondary School	11	73
5	Tikure Anbesa Senior Secondary School	10	79
Total			386

Some other schools had been asked to co-operate before the purposive sampling was done. But they didn't give satisfactory responses. The teachers who have been selected are familiar with researchers from the university. They used to fill questionnaires and give responses for interviews although it was their first time to be recorded by video recorder except one.

3.2.1 Establishing Rapport with Teachers

Teachers have different understanding of classroom research. And it was important to explain the methods and ways of gathering data in the classroom. The purposes of the study had to be mentioned to the teachers and administrators. In order to do all these things, the researcher had to establish a good rapport with teachers as well as school administrators.

Many teachers are not interested to be recorded by video recorder. They have many reasons for this. One of the reasons is that this method of data collection is not familiar to them. Another reason is that they have a great suspicion of being evaluated by the researchers.

Therefore, before taking the final recording of the lesson, the researcher tried to make things clear to the subjects, i.e., they had been thoroughly informed the purposes of the study so that normal classroom behaviour could continue while recording the lessons. In addition,

most of the subjects had been observed by the researcher for the pilot study of this work before they were recorded.

The students had also been informed of the purpose of recording the lessons. Their teachers tried to explain for the students that they were expected to act as usual. This was one means of helping the students to avoid nervousness due to the presence of the recorder and the recording material.

3.3 Recording of Lessons

The actual recording was made only after making sure that the teachers' and students' feelings of uneasiness and nervousness had been eliminated and after the establishment of good rapport.

At first, the recording had been designed to use one video in the midst of students and another one to focus on a teacher only. But the researcher observed that there were not many questions formed by the students in the language classrooms. The students asked a few questions which were not constructed correctly. Consequently, these questions are not taken into consideration. In addition, using the second video could have created uneasiness and nervousness.

Therefore, only one video was used to record the lessons. Even though students mostly gave responses, the questions that were asked by students are not audible.

In some classrooms, the seating arrangement of students was not favourable for the video man to move from one corner to another corner. Sometimes students responses are not audible.

One period has forty minutes. But the recording was not made for forty minutes in each lesson, because the teachers had to move from one class to another class at the end of every session. There is no gap between two periods. In addition some teachers gave classwork for some minutes while the recording was going on in the classroom.

3.4 Analysing the Recorded Lessons

To fulfill the objectives of the study, that is to be able to identify the kinds of questions most commonly used by the teachers and students in the classroom, and to look for faults that occur in questioning, the recorded lessons were analyzed based on the classifications used by Kissock and Iyortsuun (1982), Elizabeth Perrott (1982) and Farrant (1980) with some modifications.

There are many ways of classifying questions and most of these classifications are useful to analyse and interpret questions. One of the best known classification is Bloom's taxonomy of Educational objectives (1956). It is accepted by many authors such as Burton (1962), Brown (1975), Borich (1988), Farrant (1980), Heaton (1990), Perrott (1982) , etc. There are six levels of questions knowledge, comprehension,

application analysis, synthesis and evaluation about which detailed descriptions are given in chapter two. This classification is easy to handle in classroom research. On the other hand, the same questions have been classified differently by some authors, for example, Fanselow (1987) and Allen (1965) have similarities in their classifications. And we can see similarities in classifying questions among the following authors Wringe (1989), Byrne (1986), Chaurdin (1989), Stubbs (1983), Widdowson (1988) Van Lier (1988) and Kyriacou (1991) who have divided the questions into two, i.e., display questions and referential questions.

3.4.1 Kissonck and Iyortsuun's Classifications

Of these classifications, the researcher used the form developed by Kissonck & Iyortsuun (1982). They have described their classification as follows:

In the cognitive domain the categories included knowledge, or recall, comprehension (including translation and interpretation) application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation (Bloom's 1956). Affective Domain categories include receiving, responding, valuing, organising, a value set and characterising by value complex (Krathwhol, etc. 1964). Kissonck and Iyortsuun (1982:9).

The form has four columns, i.e., kinds of questions, questions asked, number and percentage. It is the easiest way to classify questions. There are two major divisions of questions. Low-order questions include knowledge, low-order

evaluation and procedure. High-order questions refer to comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, evaluation and affective.

Other classifications, for example, Fanselow's (1987) categories of questions are not so easy to handle. It needs special training to code and classify the questions used by teachers as well as students in the classroom according to Fanslow's category. An other problem is that the researcher hasn't come across books which show how to analyse and interpret questions which are used by teachers and students particularly in the language classrooms, i.e., questions are studied in relation to classroom interaction as a whole.

3.4.2 Farrant's Classification

Farrent classifies questions into three, i.e., lower order, middle order and higher order as shown in chapter two. He classifies all the six levels of questions used by other authors, i.e., the taxonomy is similar to Bloom's (1956) taxomony.

In addition, Farrant tries to classify the common faults of classroom questioning. According to the classification, all the questions that help learners one way or the other way are classified as good questions. The good questions may refer to lower order, middle order or higher order questions. On the other hand, questioning faults are

classified as follows:- Ambiguous questions, rhetorical questions, repeated questions, multiple questions, limited questions, elliptical questions and loosely worded questions. In chapter two, detailed descriptions are given related to each questioning faults.

The researcher used this classification to identify the questioning faults of the recorded teachers. The frequency of each fault and its percentage is given in a table in order to make comparison easier. One of the most important points that should be investigated and avoided is questioning faults. It is obvious that students imitate their teachers in many ways, i.e., the way they pronounce words and use expressions, the way they form questions. Teachers are models for their students. Therefore, it's worth identifying questioning faults and effects on the classroom language learning and teaching process.

CHAPTER IV
RESULTS OF THE ANALYSIS

4.1 Presentation and Analysis of the Data

The questions that are asked by teachers are summarized and presented in tables below. All kinds of questions are interpreted and discussed. Comments are given for all kinds of questions used by teachers in the language classrooms. Each teacher was recorded only for one period, i.e., forty minutes only. The teachers also gave classworks as a result there was silence for some minutes in each lesson.

The questions asked by teachers are expressed in terms of percentage distribution. The reason why it becomes essential to interpret into percentage is that it is easier to compare questions which are dominant in the language classroom. The same method is used to analyse the distribution of questions and to identify questioning faults.

4.2 Kinds of Questions Asked by Teachers

The collected data shows that from the total number of questions asked by five teachers, 121 or 78.43 per cent of the questions are knowledge questions which are meant to recall facts and previously given ideas. On the other hand, 29 questions are classified under comprehension questions. And four questions are not classified since they aren't related to the lessons. Table four shows the kinds of questions and the percentage distributions.

Table 4
Kinds of Questions Asked by Teachers

Questions	T1		T2		T3		T4		T5		Total	
	Number of Questions	%	Number of Questions	%	Number of Questions	%	Number of Questions	%	Number of Questions	%	Number of Questions	%
knowledge	29	85.30	18	78.26	25	71.43	28	82.35	20	74.08	121	78.43
comprehension	2	5.88	4	17.39	10	28.57	6	17.65	7	25.92	29	18.95
Application	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Analysis	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Synthesis	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Evaluation	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Unclassified	3	8.2	1	4.35							4	2.62
Total	34	100	23	100	35	100	34	100	27	100	153	100

4.2.1 Knowledge Questions

These questions require only remembering and giving information or ideas which have been presented in previous lessons. According to this study, 78.43 per cent of the total questions are knowledge questions. Similarly, Kissock and Iyortsuun (1982: 24) say that typically 70-90 per cent of all questions asked by teachers are at the knowledge level.

Even though these questions are important in some aspects of language learning and teaching process, they shouldn't be considered as the primary goal of language teaching. It is possible to use such kinds of questions to start a classroom discussion. Gradually, they can lead the communication or take the discussion into higher levels of thinking. It is also crucial to recall meanings of words, past tense forms of irregular verbs, etc. Therefore the use of knowledge questions depends on the purpose of classroom questioning.

For example, Teacher one (see Appendix A) asked many questions that required students to identify the subject, verb, etc. of sentences such as 'What is the subject to this sentence?', 'What is the verb?', 'what is the particle in this sentence?' etc. It is again true if we look at teacher two (see Appendix B), for example, 'What are transitive verbs?', 'What are the two transitive forms?'

'What is a phrasal verb?' 'What is a phrase?' etc. The third teacher asked similar questions (see Appendix C), for example, 'What do you mean by the word conflict? We gave emphasis for this word yesterday. 'What is the usual place of adverbs? It is a revision. We have already said it.' Teachers four and five also asked such kinds of questions, for example, 'What is she? 'Why she uses has to form?' 'What is the past tense of must?' 'What is the past tense of catch?' etc.

These questions may be formed easily in the classroom. They can be used effectively if they are prepared purposefully. But the teachers didn't seem to be aware of the importance of these questions and their effect in the classroom. The researcher believes that the questions could best be used at the beginning of a lesson to initiate learner to practice a new form of language.

4.2.2 Comprehension Questions

At this level, understanding is shown instead of recalling or repeating an idea. Students are required to restate, differentiate, explain, rephrase etc. ideas or information. If there is a reading passage, it is possible to ask them to rewrite some part of the passage using their own words. They can be asked to compare ideas, out-looks etc.

In this study, the comprehension questions were about 29 that is 18.95 per cent of the total questions asked by the teachers. For example, Teacher one (Appendix A) asked the students. 'What is the difference between verb transitive two and verb transitive three?' The same question was asked by the second teacher (Appendix B) "How do you differentiate the two transitive forms?'.

The third teacher was talking about a passage entitled 'class war'. He asked some comprehension questions for example, 'what is good for the capitalist and bad for the workers. What does it mean?' Can you explain?' (see Appendix C). Moreover, the fourth teacher (see Appendix D) asked questions such as "what do you think about this? Can you give your opinion?' etc. The last one (see Appendix E) offered similar questions.' How do you differentiate regular and irregular verbs? What are the main important thing that should be remembered here?' etc.

4.2.3 Unclassified Questions

These questions are not directly related to the lessons, for example, 'Can you speak up?', Who is talking? etc. (see Appendix A and B). These questions can be taken as managerial questions. According to this study, these questions cover 2.62 per cent of the total questions. In some classes, they were not used at all.

4.2.4 Application, Analysis, Synthesis and Evaluation Questions

These questions were not used by teachers in the classroom. There may be a lot of reasons for teachers not using these questions. The researcher believes that the nature of the lessons can influence the use of these questions. On the other hand, students' standard may not allow teachers to use such kind of questions. The responses to these questions might request to be constructed using long expressions and complex sentences, which are difficult for the students to use in the classroom. In addition, these questions take much more time to give responses to. According to Kissock & Iyortsuun (1982: 44), very often teachers pay more attention to knowledge and comprehension levels since this enables them to cover more of the required material. Preparing these questions needs careful planning, i.e., it may be one of the reasons why the teachers ignore these questions.

4.3 The Distributions of Questions

Table 5 shows how questions are distributed in the classrooms.

Table 5
Distribution of Questions

Questions Answered by	T ₁		T ₂		T ₃		T ₄		T ₅		Total	
	Number of Questions	%	Number of Questions	%	Number of Questions	%	Number of Questions	%	Number of Questions	%	Number of Questions	%
Randomly asked pupils	4	11.76	1	4.35	5	14.29	6	17.65	3	11.11	19	12.42
Volunteers	23	67.66	16	69.57	14	40.00	13	38.23	10	37.04	76	49.67
The class as a whole	4	11.76	4	17.39	14	40.00	7	20.59	9	33.33	38	24.84
The teachers themselves	3	8.82	2	8.69	-	-	5	14.71	3	11.11	13	8.49
Unanswered Questions	-	-	-	-	2	5.71	3	8.82	2	7.41	7	4.58
Total	34	100	23	100	35	100	34	100	27	100	153	100

4.3.1 Questions Answered by Randomly Asked Students

On table five, it is shown that 19 questions or 12.42 per cent of the total questions were answered by randomly asked students. This method of distributing questions in the classroom is good since it helps to hold the attention of the whole class. If students know that their teacher asks questions randomly, the students will be alert and attentive. It is also advisable to mention the questions before giving the opportunity to answer the questions for a student. Then the students can get time to think over the question. If the questions aren't given first, the students may not follow what the teacher says except the student who is given the chance to give a response.

4.3.2 Questions Answered by Volunteers

In this study, it was found that 76 or 49.67 per cent of the total questions were answered by volunteers. It is obvious that language learning needs practice. Therefore, the teachers should arrange their questions in such a way that they invite all the students to give responses and use the language form under discussion in the classroom. Giving chances for volunteers can be taken as one variety of distributing questions. Sometimes, if the questions are challenging, it is preferable to allow only volunteer students to give responses.

If teachers give opportunities for volunteers, shy students may not get the chance to practise or use the

language. Therefore, this method shouldn't be over used in the classroom since it doesn't allow the teacher to give chances for all students to participate in the classroom, i.e., shy students and those who don't want to speak in the class may not answer voluntarily.

4.3.3 Questions Answered by the Class as a Whole

Even though the distribution of questions can be affected by the purposes of questioning, the teacher can allow the whole class to give responses together. Particularly, this method can be used if the teacher wants students to practise a new form of language.

On the other hand, if the teacher designs his questions to evaluate their understanding, this method doesn't help him to identify his students' problems.

According to this study, the questions which were answered by the whole class was 38 or 24.84 per cent of the total questions asked. It is clearly seen from the data that teachers don't use questions to practise language forms. They tried to evaluate the understanding of their students as quickly as they could. Allowing the whole class to give responses taken as a fast means of checking students' understanding.

4.3.4 Questions Answered by the Teachers Themselves

Sometimes, teachers gave responses to their own questions. This could have been due to lack of patience, i.e., they didn't allow all their students enough time to think over their questions. The teachers also asked questions and moved to related topics before they got correct answers.

In this study, all teachers gave responses to their own questions. For example, (see Appendix A) 'The verb and the particles are in the same place? No, in different places! (Appendix B) 'What is a phrase? What is a phrasal verb? A combination of two words. It is shown on Table 5 above that 13 questions or 8.49 per cent of all questions were answered by the teachers themselves.

4.3.5 Unanswered Questions

When two or more questions are given consecutively, there is a probability that some questions will be left unanswered. During explanation, teachers tended to forget some of their questions since they spent a lot of time talking about related topics. For example, 'Anybody else who is to say not correct?' is interrupted by students and the teachers forgot to give corrections (Appendix D).

Table 5 shows that there were 7 questions or 4.58 per cent of the total questions for which answers were not given by some teachers and students.

4.4 Faults in Classroom Questioning

Table 6
Faults in Questions

Questions	T1		T2		T3		T4		T5		Total	
	Number of Questions	%	Number of Questions	%	Number of Questions	%	Number of Questions	%	Number of Questions	%	Number of Questions	%
Good questions	17	50	10	43.48	11	31.43	7	20.59	12	44.44	57	37.25
Ambiguous	-	-	2	8.70	3	8.57	2	5.88	1	3.71	8	5.23
Multiple	3	8.82	-	-	2	5.72	6	17.65	3	11.11	14	9.15
Repeated	3	8.82	4	17.39	4	11.42	5	14.70	4	14.81	20	13.07
Rhetorical	4	11.7	3	13.04	2	5.72	2	5.88	2	7.41	13	8.50
Limited	-	-	-	-	3	8.57	-	-	2	7.41	5	3.27
Loosely worded	7	20.59	4	17.39	8	22.85	7	20.59	3	11.11	9	18.95
Elliptical	-	-	-	-	2	5.72	5	14.70	-	-	7	4.58
Total	34	100	23	100	35	100	34	100	27	100	153	100

This part of the study deals with the presentation and analysis of classroom questioning faults.

4.4.1 Good Questions

These include different kinds of questions such as knowledge and comprehension questions recorded in this the study. Those questions which are formed and presented correctly are classified as good questions which can be easily understood by students. According to Farrant (1980: 195) questions that help students to understand new concepts, to develop their thinking abilities, to practise a new language forms, etc. are classified under good questions in general.

Table 6 shows that from the total number of questions asked (153) only 57 or 37.20 per cent of the total questions were good questions. For example, 'What is the difference between verb transitive two and verb transitive three?' (See Appendix A) 'What are transitive verbs?', 'How do you differentiate the two transitive forms' etc. (see Appendix B). 'What do you mean by adverb of frequency?' (see Appendix C). "How do you correct this?', 'What is the past tense of must?' (see Appendix D) 'How do you differentiate regular and irregular verbs?', 'Why do you use had to?' (see Appendix E). In general, the good questions included all

the questions which were correct grammatically and carried only one idea, and helped the teacher to know the degree of understanding of the students.

4.4.2 Ambiguous Questions

In this study, ambiguous questions refer to the kind of questions that may have many possible answers or may be no answers at all. Table 6 shows that 5.23 per cent of the total questions were ambiguous questions. These questions didn't allow the students to give precise responses. For example, 'Can you make any sentence? (see Appendix c), 'Does that mean what? (see Appendix B) etc. These are some of the questions that didn't help students to learn the language.

4.4.3 Multiple Questions

These questions are used when teachers didn't think about their questions beforehand. They asked many questions at a time. These questions didn't refer to a single idea. They mixed up a lot of things. 'What is the second sentence? What is the verb in the second sentence? Which particle goes with the verb?' (see Appendix A) 'What does it mean?' 'Can you explain me why this sentence is given?' (see Appendix C). 'Where here? must not do? Why for?' (see Appendix D). 'Do you have corrections? All are correct?' (see Appendix D). 'What is this? What does it mean?' (see Appendix E).

If a number of questions are presented together, they tend to confuse students. Therefore, we should ask only one question at a time.

4.4.4 Repeated Questions

Questions which are repeated in different ways may confuse students. If the students know that the teacher usually repeats questions, they will not be attentive while the questions are asked. Repeating questions should be avoided since it wastes much of the lessons' time unnecessarily.

Again, Table 6 shows that 13.07 per cent or twenty questions were repeated questions such as 'What is the particle in this sentence?' 'Which is the verb?' 'What is the verb? (see Appendix A); 'What are the two forms? What is the other one?' (see Appendix B). 'Owned by ? Individuals or? whom?' (see Appendix C). 'What is your correction?', 'How do you correct it?' (See Appendix D). 'What is she? She is ...

what?' (see Appendix E). All these examples show how the same questions are repeated unnecessarily.

4.4.5 Rhetorical Questions

These kind of questions were mostly used by the teachers who gave long explanations or descriptions. They add some questions to their explanations when they felt that it was important to ask questions. These questions didn't test any thing, but they were used to check whether the students had been paying attention or not.

For example, these are particles and these are verbs, aren't they?' (see Appendix A). 'Yes phrasal verbs, What is the one? Single form (see Appendix B) 'What is a phrasal verb? A combination of two word' (see Appendix B). 'Their usual place is after the direct object; where is the place" (see Appendix C). 'Have to and...? Shenkutie must see a doctor immediately, isn't it?' (see Appendix D). 'You have understood the difference between ... these verbs, haven't you?' (see Appendix E).

From Table 7, we can see that rhetorical questions formed about 8.50 per cent of the total questions asked in the classrooms.

4.4.6 Limited Questions

These questions were used when teachers finished what they had for the lessons or when they finished explaining part of their lesson and wanted to shift to another one. For example 'Do you have any question/problem (see Appendix E) 'Do you have problems in the inversion of these words?' (see Appendix C). These questions constituted only 3.27 per cent of the total questions.

4.4.7 Loosely Worded Questions

Loosely worded questions had a significant place in the classroom. Since these questions were not grammatically correct, the students had to follow or understand the context to give correct responses.

For example, questions like: 'Ok. she... the verb is what? (see Appendix A) and 'The verb is which are?' 'Not a phrase, a phrasal verb is what?' (see Appendix B). 'That is verb plus what?'; 'owned by? and 'In order to ... to ... come on. What to do?', 'Why she use has to form have to?' 'And this is correct? Why?' But here we use isn't. Why?' (see Appendix D); 'In our previous discussion obligation means what?' (Appendix E).

Such kind of questions are not easily understood by students. And 18.95 per cent or twenty-nine questions were loosely worded according to this study. These questions were the result of lack of preparation. That is why they

were formed by interrupting explanations and discussion in the classroom.

4.4.8 Elliptical Questions

A number of elliptical questions could be identified while teachers were giving their lessons. They were incomplete sentences which needed replay from the students. For example, 'emm... er... the third one?' 'Shenkutie?' 'A student completes the sentence using' is not to see a doctor immediately' (see Appendix D). 'Yes, another one?' (see Appendix C) etc.

These questions were not constructed by all the teachers in this study. This kind of question were few in number, i.e., 4.58 or 7 questions are classified as elliptical questions.

These are simple questions to form but they are not effective in the classroom, because they encourage learners to use words, phrases and so on.

4.5 Teachers' Reaction to Students Responses

Students gave responses using words, phrases and simple sentences. Most of the responses were given correctly.

The teachers used non-verbal gestures to show their agreement to students' responses, i.e., nodding the head. On the other hand, teachers tried to reward the responses

using expressions that showed approval. For example, 'Yes, it is correct', 'Very good, you get the idea'. 'Yes, right' (see Appendix A). 'That is correct.' 'Yes, correct.' 'Good, yes' (see Appendix B). 'Very good Zenebe. Right, Nice clarification.' (see Appendix C). 'Very good.' 'Yes, you are right.' 'Correct.' 'Good.' (see Appendix D).

The wrong responses were treated positively. Instead of saying 'Uou are wrong.' 'Useless explanation.' 'Bad expression.' and so on, the teachers tried to show the wrong responses by using other questions. For example, 'Do you agree?' 'Any other for number seven?' 'Any correction?' 'Any body who is to say not correct?' (see Appendices). These questions were used as a means of probing for other responses.

Students' responses can be used for many other purposes in the classroom. Classroom discussion can be redirected using students' responses or classroom discussions can be formed from the responses.

Generally, the teachers treated students' responses appropriately. It implied that teachers are aware of expressions that affect students' feelings.

understanding of students. Giving a chance for volunteers and the class as a whole didn't help the teacher to evaluate individuals understanding or to find problems. The questions should have fulfilled the purposes which were designed before the presentation of the lesson. Eventhough the answers given by randomly asked pupils helped to evaluate their understanding, the teachers asked randomly when there was no volunteer to give responses.

One of the problems in questioning is forming effective questions. The result of this study shows that only 57 questions could be classified as good questions, whereas about 96 questions had faults in different ways. This could have been the result of lack of 'preparation beforehand. Questions can serve many purposes in the language classrooms. Therefore, questions should always be prepared with specific purposes and every effort should be made to see that they have no faults.

It can be clearly seen from the data that the only means of communication between teachers and students is classroom questioning. Questions can make great contribution for the classroom interaction as a whole. But in the lessons the teachers asked almost all the questions and students gave only responses.

Students must ask questions. This can be facilitated by the teachers. Teachers should therefore arrange

favourable conditions for their students that initiate them to form their own questions.

Generally, questions are not given careful attention by teachers in the recorded classrooms.

5.2 Recommendations

Questions that demand only recall of facts from pupils should be minimized because such questions don't allow the pupils to express their feelings using English in the classroom.

It is advisable that questions should be distributed in a variety of ways. Teachers can give their students the opportunity to answer questions turn-by-turn, randomly, the class as a whole, etc. But teachers should at the same time make sure that they are fulfilling the desired aims of using questions in the language classroom.

Planning is very important in classroom questioning. Teachers should prepare their questions carefully before they come to the classroom. This will help them to reduce making faults in forming questions and also to identify the purposes of asking questions beforehand as well.

A lot of exercises should be prepared in order to teach students to form their own questions. This can be done using pair work, and group work in the classroom. Regular

practice must be given for the students to improve their skills in using the language through questions.

It is generally believed that the way questions are phrased or put together can affect their impact and the reaction of the class. Therefore, teachers should consider the following factors as they prepare to use questions in the class.

- Have I prepared a variety of questions?
- Are questions organised into a logical sequence?
- Are the questions concise and clear?
- Are the questions interesting and relevant to the lesson being taught?
- Are the students familiar with the language in the questions? etc.

The researcher believes that questions must be given emphasis in the English language teaching methodology courses. The kinds of questions, their uses in the English language classrooms, the way to prepare questions, the purposes of questions in the class, etc. should be thoroughly given and practised by the trainees. Consequently, they can become familiar with different kinds of questions and their uses in the language classrooms.

Teachers should also try to investigate the effects of their questions by recording their own lessons. It can help

them to discover better ways to make use of questions in teaching.

Further studies should be made on classroom questioning to investigate the problems in detail and their solutions in relation to the language classrooms of secondary schools as well as higher institutions.

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APPENDIX A

T₁

TRANSCRIPTION OF THE RECORDED LESSON

- T: Good morning students.
- SS: Good morning teacher.
- T: I think we have an assignment.
- SS: Yes.
- T: Let's do some of these question quickly. Ok number one
... what is the answer for number one?
- S: Confess
- T: Yes! ... number two
- S: Played.
- T: Yes! ... number three.
- S: Result.
- T: Yes, the last one is? What is the answer?
- S: Consider.
- T: Yes, correct. Let's go to another topic. We have done
the rest yesterday. And now let's go to verb
transitive two (writes on the blackboard). She called
out her father's name. What is the subject of this
sentence?
- SS: She.
- T: Ok she. The verb is what?
- SS: Called out.
- T: Is that sentence correct or wrong?

SS: It is correct.

T: Yes, it is correct. She put off the lights. What is the subject?

SS: She.

T: What is the verb?

SS: Put ... put off.

T: Who can change it? Ok Legaleme.

Legaleme: (Inaudible)

T: Transitive verb three. What is the difference between verb transitive two and verb transitive three?

S: We can separate the verb and the particle.

T: Yes, we can separate the verb and the particle in transitive verb three. Very good. You get the idea. Let me give you another example. (Writes on the blackboard) I shall send back these books. So what is the particle in this sentence?

S: Back.

T: Yes, right. Take the following combinations of these verbs (writes on the blackboard for about fifteen minutes). Ok. How do you read this?

S: (Inaudible).

T: Raise your voice then others can listen to you.

S: Run away, take away, blow away ...

T: These are the particles (points to the particle on the blackboard) and these are the verbs aren't they? Ok. go ahead (continues writing on the blackboard). These are the verbs that go with the particle down. Put down, ... close down, These are some of the

phrasal transitive verbs. Now let me give an exercise
put the appropriate verb to complete the sentences.

(writes questions on the blackboard) Ok the first
question is. What is the verb?

S: Blew up.

T: I think I blow the house upW. what is the second
sentence? What is the verb in the second sentence?
Which particle goes with the verb?

S: pointed out.

T: Very good Number three.

S: (Inaudible)

T: What is the particle in this sentence?

S: Carried ... away.

T: Yes, it can be carried away. Let's go to number four
.... What is the particle?

S: (Inaudible).

T: Sorry! Number four. Anybody who can do number
five? ... ah: No. No. The same students are raising
their hands.... Ok number six. He makes sure that the
money was lost...

S: Up.

T: Up ok. or away you can say. What is the verb in this
sentence?

S: Up.

T: Do you agree?

SS: No.

T: What is the particle.

S: Up.

- T: What is the particle.
- S: Away.
- T: Away. Away is a particle. Still there is another one.
- S: Through away.
- T: Yes, How about number six? What is the particle? Look at your exercise book. It is not on the blackboard.
- S: Up is the particle.
- T: Yes, blow up, take up, ? up. Ok let's go to the next one. Yes, stand up and answer please.
- S: (stands up) Give up.
- T: Give up cigarettes. What is the meaning?
- S: Stop.
- T: Yes, stop. Let's go to number nine. What is the particle in that sentence? The old man ____ his shop down.
- S: Down.
- T: Yes, closed down. Ok the last one? What is the particle.
- SS: (Inaudible).
- T: No. Yes anybody.
- S: Off.
- T: Yes took off. Ok now it is time. We should stop here thank you.

APPENDIX B

T₂

TRANSCRIPTION OF THE RECORDED LESSONS

- T: Ok. Transitive verbs (writes on the blackboard) This is the topic that we are going to discuss about. What are transitive verbs?
- S: Roots of verbs.
- T: Roots of verbs. She says. Is she correct?
- S: The verb pass from the subject to the object.
- T: That is correct. When the action passes from the subject to objects, that is transitive verb. So transitive verbs are followed by objects. When the action passes from subject to the objects we say transitive verb. Transitive verbs can have two forms. What are the two forms? How do you differentiate the two transitive forms?
- S: Phrasal form.
- T: Yes, phrasal form. What is the other one? Single form (writes on the blackboard). Transitive phrasal verbs can be replaced by transitive single word verbs. Examples are given ... for example, the teacher (writes on the blackboard) gave out the question papers? What is the verb in this sentence?
- SS: Gave out.
- T: Gave out is a phrasal verb. What does it mean? Speak up!

SS: Distributed.

T: Distributed. Correct. We can replace gave out by using one word verb. The teacher distributed the question papers, so therefore our statement is true. Transitive phrasal verbs can be replaced by transitive single word. Now a phrasal verb is what? Not a phrase. What is a phrasal verb? A combination of two words. Another example, the chairman put off the meeting (writes on the blackboard). We have said that phrasal verb is a combination of two words. What are the two words that make up phrasal verbs?

S: Verb plus particle.

T: That is verb plus what? Particle. Verb plus particle. Therefore, phrasal verb is verb plus particle (writes on the blackboard). For example, gave out, put off out and off are particles. Well ... but always verbs can be followed by particles but they may not form phrasal verbs for example (writes on blackboard). (1) to run out of the house. (2) to run out of sugar. The first one. It is verb plus particle in number one. The particle expresses relationship between the verb and the noun. The particle in example one is more attracted by the following noun than the preceding verb. But in example two to run out of sugar. The particle is attracted by the verb. What do you mean by run out of sugar?

S: Having no sugar.

T: Yes, having no sugar. This is phrasal verb ... because verb plus particle has one single unit of expression. The meaning of the expression can be different. The expression is different from the words. In this case ... when there is no strong attraction to the verb, we can't say it is a particle. And we can't separate the verb and particle. If you separate them, they don't have meanings There is an exercise on replacing phrasal verbs. We have said transitive phrasal verbs can be replaced by single transitive verb. Classwork on page 221. Re-write sentences by replacing phrasal verbs with single word transitive verbs. (More than fifteen minutes are given here for the classwork).

T: Now let's discuss the exercise. Let's do it together. Re-write the following sentences. Please be quiet! Listen yes, number one.

S: The photographer will blow up your picture enlarge.

T: The photographer will blow up your picture. Number one blow up blow up is a phrasal verb. The single transitive verb is enlarge. The photographer will enlarge your picture. Ok number two yes.

S: They want ... (Inaudible).

T: What is the phrasal verb?

S: Take back.

T: Take back. Does that mean? What?

S: Take back means withdraw.

- T: Yes, correct take-back means withdraw. They want to take back means withdraw. What is the transitive phrasal verb in number two?
- S: Has come across.
- T: has come across is the phrasal verb. What is the single transitive verb in number three?
- S: Discovered.
- T: Discovered correct. Discovered means come across. Number four.
- S: He puts away all his jewellery. Reduce.
- T: Is it correct? Ok. Yes.
- S: Stores. She puts away means stores.
- T: Stores. Puts away means stores. Number five yes.
- S: The farmers have decided to bring down reduce.
- T: Bring down. Reduce. Correct. Number six.
- S: (Inaudible).
- T: Called out what is the single word? Summoned. When the listen caught fire, they summoned the fire brigade. Ok number seven.
- S: Our arrangements fell through failed.
- T: Correct. Number eight. Yes, Abdu.
- S: (Inaudible).
- T: Correct. Make out means understand. Number ten.
- S: (Inaudible).
- T: No, No. What is the phrasal verb?
- SS: Give away.
- S: She afraid that he might reveal her secrets.

T: Reveal correct. She is afraid that he might reveal her secret. The phrasal verb and the single word have the same meaning. Ok. That is all for today.

APPENDIX C

T₃

TRANSCRIPTION OF THE RECORDED LESSON

T: Class war (writes on the blackboard.) It was our topic. In the class war, we've seen phrases, words, and other things which help us to develop our language. Finally, we have a homework. The instruction says complete the following words. From the passage. You'll accomplish, complete the question Now let's go directly to the homework. Who will give answer to the first question? Yes Moges.

S(Moges): In a capitalist country land is owned by individuals.

T: Owned by? There is another word individuals or? Whom? Capitalists. Any other opinion about this question? Ok. The next question is question number two.

S: Labour is essential for production of goods.

T: labour is essential for production of goods. Do you know another word that can replace essential? Yes.

S: Important.

T: Yes, we can rather use the word important number three. Yes.

S: The interest of workers and capitalists is opposite.

T: Yes, there is always conflict between the two classes. We have seen the word conflict yesterday. We gave emphasis for this word. What do you mean by conflicts?

S: contradict.

- T: Good. Yes.
- T: Ok... What is the meaning of opposed.
- S: Disagreement.
- T: Do you have another word?
- S: Against.
- S: Contradict.
- T: Yes, contradict. Ok! Use.
- S: Struggle.
- T: Yes, struggle. We have seen minor and major conflict
Number five.
- S: (Inaudible)
- T: Yes, not / / / /. In order to... to
come on What to do? Number seven. Yes.
- S: (Inaudible).
- T: Is it relationship? Any other answer for number seven?
- S: What is good for the workers bad for the capitalists.
- T: What is good for the capitalist bad for the workers.
What does it mean? Can you explain me why this sentence
is constructed? Ok Zenebe.
- Zenebe: (long explanation & inaudible).
- T: Very good. Zenebe, right nice clarification. And the
next one.
- S: One class succeed at the expense of others.
- T: Yeah, at the expense of other. What do you mean by at
the expense of others ... at the expense ... at the
expense.
- S: (Inaudible).

T: Number nine. In this sense at the expense of the other one will go up.

S: By exploiting one.

T: Yes, by exploiting others. Let's do number ten. Ok. Yes.

S: Labourers in a capitalist society are not handsomely rewarded.

T: Yes, Labourers in a capitalist society are not handsomely rewarded. What do you mean by handsomely?

S: Generously.

T: Yes, generously, genuinely. Labourers in capitalist society are not handsomely rewarded, up-graded. Ok. Do you have problems in the insertion of these words? Everybody done this homework? Everybody has done the home work. Therefore, there is not problem in this part. Now, let's see today's topic. That is we will continue the structure part. Position of adverbs (writes on the blackboard). Ok remember that we were looking to the position of adverbs, nouns and adjectives. This is revision to us. Any-way, let's see the thing we have, the first one is adverb of manner (writes on the blackboard). Here it says like kindly. Yes another one?

S: Badly.

T: Yes, badly, well, and like those are the typical examples of adverbs of manner. It answers the question (writes on the blackboard) of how? For example. He

spoke English well. How did he speak English? The answer is

SS: Well.

T: Yes, well answers the question how. What is the usual place of adverbs of manner? Their usual place is after the direct object. Where is the place?

SS: After the object.

T: They are usually (writes on the blackboard) placed after the direct object. He spoke English well. Well is placed after the object that is English. He spoke English. If it stop the sentence here it's meaning is lost. So well is important. Abebe walk quickly. Quickly is an adverb of manner. We can give other examples. Can you give me other examples?

S: She spoke fluently.

T: Yes, she spoke fluently. How? Fluently.

S: He walk gently.

T: Yes, he walks gently.

S; Last night, I slept soundly.

T: Yes, I slept soundly. Any other? Yes.

S: He runs fastly.

T: Yes, he runs fastly. Another?

S: Can you run fastly?

T: Yes, we have already said it. This is a revision. And the second one is or rather adverb of place. There is one similarity with adverb of manner. Adverb of manner is placed after the direct object. I will try to give you short notes about his. Now, let's see Halima

(writes on the blackboard) washed her clothes here. Here is the place. Halima is the subject. Here is the place. Can you give me other words?

S: There, somewhere, here.

T: Can you make your sentences?

S: I went there yesterday.

T: Yes, any other example? Yes Geremew.

Geremew: She painted her picture here.

T: Yes she painted her picture here. Any other?

S: Abebe put his book on the shelf.

T: Abebe put his book Where? On the shelf. Yes.

S: He is found everywhere.

T: Yes, he is found everywhere. Somewhere, everywhere. Yes?

S: Azmeraw mended his car here.

T: Yes, a good example. Near by. Azmeraw mended his car here ok..

S: You can go wherever you want.

T: Yes, you can go wherever you want. One more I would like to see new hands.

S: I search my pen everywhere.

T: Yes, I search my pen everywhere. The third one is adverb of time (writes on the blackboard) examples then, yet, still not only these. You can have some more. These adverbs of frequency? What is adverb of frequency? Oh? yes!

S: An adverb which helps us to know the repetition of the actions.

T: Yeah. good. That is adverbs of frequency. That is adverb of frequency. The beginning of the sentence look. Woizero Fatuma is coming today (writes on the blackboard) when? today. Zenebe is sleeping now. We can give many examples. Let it come from you. Yes?

S: He goes by bus everyday.

T: Yes, he goes to school by bus everyday.

S: Where were you last night?

T: Yes, where were you last night? Last night shows to me. He kicks his brother two times. It shows time so as to make it clear. There are some homework. To be done if you go to page 316. Use still or yet to complete the following sentence. Do it for tomorrow. If you have any question, opinion? Any question dear students. Thank you!

APPENDIX D

T₄

TRANSCRIPTION OF THE RECORDED LESSON

- T: We have a homework. We did the first question. And let's see the second sentence Shenkutie sees.
- S: Teacher!
- T: Yes.
- S: Can we add to ... (inaudible).
- T: After what?
- S: Obligation after must?
- T: After must. The students must not.
- S: Do ... (inaudible)
- T: Where here? Must not do? No, why for? The students must not do practice. This is simply must indicates an obligation here. And we use to give more emphasis to the statement to the idea conveyed to. And not need of adding to the sentence must not practice. Yes, Alemayehu.
- S: After the ... (inaudible).
- T: Again.
- S: After have to and need are the same?
- T: Where?
- S: By the negative.
- T: In the affirmative statement?
- S: Yes.
- T: We say yesterday that we use these three verbs so as to express an emphasis or obligation. And specially must.
- S: Why?

T: So as to give more emphasis and we use have to so as to express especially the habitual action. And need to very, very for less emphasis. Then (clears his throat) but when we change it to negative. There lies exceptions and we use the verb to be so as to retain the emphasis. And what was ... er. What is your questions?

S: My question is have to and need to are the same by negative ... (inaudible).

T: Why we use has?

S: Yes.

T: I think I said it. If we use simply have to and need to, there is no obligation. If you say, for example, the students need not to practise that means it is not necessary. There is no emphasis... no obligation you are not obliged. You are not forced to do. So it loses. That means you are not needed to practise. Then that means no need of ... it is not necessary. So there is no obligation. We use aren't so as to retain the emphasis, the obligation. And number two Shenkutie sees ... see a doctor immediately (writes on the blackboard and clears his throat). This is the second sentence given. Shenkutie see a doctor change into obligation. In the affirmative and negative form. Ok.

S: Shenkutie must see a doctor immediately.

T: Very good. Shenkutie must see a doctor immediately. And

S: Shenkutie need to see a doctor immediately.

T: Yes.

- S: Shenkutie has to see a doctor immediately.
- T: Shenkutie need to see a doctor immediately. Any correction? Let me repeat Shenkutie must see a doctor immediately. Shenkutie has ...
- SS: Have, have.
- T: No, what she said.
- S: Shenkutie has to see a doctor.
- T: Yes, Shenkutie must (writes on the blackboard) must see a doctor immediately. Shenkutie has to see (writes on the blackboard) a doctor immediately, isn't it. And What?
- S: (Inaudible) Shenkutie need to ...
- T: Shenkutie need to (writes on the blackboard) need to see a doctor immediately. Is there any correction? or Is she ... correct? Shenkutie must see a doctor immediately. Shenkutie has to see a doctor immediately. And Shenkutie need to see Any correction? If any correction, you simply tell the correction? Do you agree? All are correct? Can you give your opinion?
- S: Yes.
- T: There is an opposition. Alemayehu.
- S: (Inaudible).
- T: Has to? What is your correction then for? What is your correction?
- S: Have to.
- T: How do you correct it? Shenkutie have to see a doctor. What do you think? Which one is correct?

- SS: Has to, have to.
- S: Have, Shenkutie have to see a doctor immediately.
- T: Emmm... er the third one?
- S: Shenkutie need to see ... see a doctor immediately.
- T: Em... Dawit.
- S: She is right because has to means ...
- T: She is right? That will do. If you say she is right then and all the three statements are right. Any-body else. Who is to say not correct? Yes.
- S: Question.
- T: Here?
- S: No, my question expressing obligation with must have to and need to, but she said ... changed to have to ... Why?
- T: Well, that ... that is what I am asking.
- S: Has to.
- T: That is why I am asking. Here she said Shenkutie has. Why she use has to form have to? And this is correct why? And this wrong. There is something to be corrected here. Now what is Shenkutie?
- S: Third person.
- T: Third person ... singular (write on the blackboard).
- SS: Singular.
- T: So for third person singular we use has instead of have and the last one need Shenkutie needs. He needs. He eats, She eats. But not we eats. We eat. They eat. You eat. But he eats for third person. It takes '-s'. So add '-s' here. So Shenkutie needs to see a doctor

immediately. This is affirmative statement with obligation. Now you change these three sentences into negative (writes on the blackboard) change them into negative. Yes?

- S: Shenkutie must not see a doctor immediately.
 T: Shenkutie must not see a doctor immediately.
 S: Shenkutie is not to see a doctor immediately.
 T: Shenkutie is not to see a doctor immediately.
 S: Shenkutie is not...
 T: Is not?
 S: A doctor immediately.
 T; Shenkutie.
 S: Is not to see a doctor immediately.
 T: Yes, so the same person Shenkutie (writes on the blackboard) see a doctor immediately. And Shenkutie is not There is an (interrupted). But here we use isn't why? Why not aren't?
 S: Because... Shenkutie is third person singular.
 T: Yes, because Shenkutie is singular and third person that is the only reason. But almost the same. This is the negative form with an emphasis in the negative form of ... And (clears his throat). Let's see past tense and need to on page 235 the samples are given. You must speak your native language ... (Writes on the blackboard). This is the given statement. You must speak your native language here. Now this is.... It expresses an obligation in present tense. Now you

change it into past tense ... with the three forms of verbs with ... must, have to and need to yes!

S: (Inaudible)

T: Again.

S: You must spoken your native language there.

T: No... Tewodros.

S: You must speak your native language here.

T: Now this is present tense. Change into past tense with must, have to ... Dawit.

S: You must spoke your native language here.

T: Now what is the past tense of must?

S: had, had to.

T: There is no past tense form. So instead of must in past tense form, we use 'had to'. And we use had instead of must. Must there is no past tense form for must. And we re-write you must instead. You had to speak your native language (writes on the blackboard). There had to speak. You had to speak your native language here.

S: Language there.

T: Eh?

S: Language there.

T: Language.

S: There.

T: Well it doesn't reverse we say here or there. Now you had to speak your native language there and use had to the past tense form is had to. Read what is given in your textbook and come for tomorrow.

APPENDIX E

T₅

TRANSCRIPTION OF THE RECORDED LESSON

T: Please keep quiet. What was the topic that we discussed yesterday?

SS: Adjective clauses.

T: And?

SS: Infinitive phrases.

T: In addition, we have seen some of the irregular verbs with their past and past participle forms How do you differentiate regular and irregular verbs? Yes, you.

S: Regular verbs we add -ed to get past forms.

T: yes you are right and the irregular verb?

S: Irregular verbs change vowels and letters.

T: Ok. What is the past tense of catch?

SS: Caught, caught.

T: yes, there are changes ... in vowels and consonants to form the past tense. Ok. You have understood the difference between ... these verbs, haven't you? Now, let's come to today's lesson (writes on the blackboard) obligation. This is a review unit. We discussed about obligation in our preview sessions. Obligation means what? Ok.

S: Compulsion.

T: Yes, it is compulsion. We can use the modal auxiliaries to express obligation in the present tense.

For example. You must come on time (writes on the blackboard) you have to study hard. These sentences can be taken as examples of obligation in the present. What is the past form of must?

S: Had to.

T: Yes, if you want to express past obligation use had to (writes on the blackboard). You had to study hard. What is this? Obligation in the past. What is this?

SS: Obligation in the past.

T: Correct. Good.... There are two negatives (writes on the blackboard) (1) be 'not obliged to:- needn't, don't have to (2) 'be obliged to:- mustn't. You can see examples from your textbook on ... page 291. Look Look at page 291. Negatives: absence of obligation (writes on the blackboard). What is this? What does it mean?

SS; Negative.

T: Yes, negative which shows absence of obligation or you can say you don't have to be back by nine o'clock or you are not obliged to be back by nine o'clock. These are the same ... can anybody give us an example? Yes.

S: She have to go to hospital.

T: What is she? (writes on the blackboard). It is third person singular. Ok. Who can correct it? She is what?

S: She has to.

T: Yes, she ... she has to go to the hospital. We say she has to, he has to, it has, Abebe has to or Almaz has to.... Is it clear? Yes any problem? Ok. Do you have any question?

S: What about I, we and

T: Very good. We use ... you can see from the example have to with I that is I have to, we have to, you have to, they?

SS: Have to.

T: Do you understand? Ok. Turn over textbook on page 291. There is an exercise you are asked to complete the given sentences using must or form of have to Let's see some of the questions. Now number one says (writes on the blackboard) I ____ see the director yesterday. Ok. (clears his throat) You.

SS: Past tense.

T: Right the word yesterday refers to past time. The second one is? Ok.

S: You must finish that report.

T: Ok. Is it possible to use have to here?

S: Yes.

T: You can use both have to and must here. The instruction also says that we can write both have to and must. But if you have past time expression, you should immediately take had to.... Now let's continue doing some of these questions. The third one.

S: He has to close the window because of the rain.

T: Good. You can also use.

SS: Must.

T: Yes, must is used here. Another example. Look at number six. Who can give the answer?.

S: Last Friday Almaz told me she had to telephone her mother.

T: Yes, that means it is clear that you have understood. Now, the other questions are given as assignments. Do it at your home and come for tomorrow. Do you have any problem? The next one is ought to (writes one the blackboard). Ought to is used to indicate duty and necessity in a weaker way and ... there is often some suggestion of failure. If you compare must and ought to they have differences. Must is stronger or it express strong obligation. Look the given examples (writes on the blackboard). You ought to write to your mother. (But you haven't). See the given examples. It says have that ought to can also be used to show desire. What is the meaning of the word desire?

S: Feeling.

T: No, for example. You ought to finish your food there. Ought to is used to express desire or what the speaker wants. Ok.

S: Interest.

T: Right, desire means want or interest. Do you know the relationship between ought to and should? We will come to this next time. Exercise is given on your textbook. Let's do some these questions. Ok. Number one.

S: (Inaudible).

T: Yes, I ought to go and see. Almaz but I am too busy.
You do the rest and come tomorrow. We have seen the
uses of must and have to and ought to. What is the use
of must and have to?

SS: To show obligation.

T: Yes ... what about ought to?

S: To express duty and necessity.

T: What is the past tense form of must and have to?

S: Had to.

T: Yes. Do you have any question? Do you understand
everything? Ok. Don't forget to do the exercises. I
have finished today's lesson.

DECLARATION

The thesis is my original work, has not been presented for a degree in any other university and that all sources of material used by the thesis have been fully acknowledged.

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